DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 370 357 FL 022 034

AUTHOR Richards, Jack C.
TITLE Reflective Teaching in TESOL Teacher Education.
PUB DATE 91
NOTE 21p.; In: Sadtono, Eugenius, Ed. Issues in Language Teacher Education. Anthology Series 30; see FL 022 033.
PUB TYPE Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Educational Research; English (Second Language); Higher Education; *Language Teachers; *Second Language Instruction; Teacher Attitudes; Teacher Behavior; *Teacher Education; *Teacher Education Curriculum; *Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS *Reflective Teaching

ABSTRACT

This article discusses theories of teaching that are part of teacher education programs and the teacher education experiences that best realize these theories. Various top-down and bottom-up approaches to teaching are compared. Top-down approaches, for example, may apply educational research to classroom teaching or use a methods approach based on systematic reasoning. Bottom-up approaches use the teacher's actual teaching experiences as the basis for constructing theories and for developing notions of effective teaching. It is argued that bottom-up approaches, especially those based on teacher self-reflection, hold the most promise for developing effective teachers because they emphasize development, discovery, and inquiry rather than training in fixed methodologies. Reflective teaching utilizes recordings of teachers' performances, self-evaluation, journals, and peer observations to provide constructive feedback to help teachers improve their performance. Several studies of the reflective teaching approach are reviewed. (MDM)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED 370 357

Reflective Teaching in TESOL Teacher Education

Jack C. Richards

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Wong Kim Wong

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

FL 022034

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

REFLECTIVE TEACHING IN TESOL TEACHER EDUCATION

Jack C Richards

Introduction

When we are involved in planning or implementing teacher education programs for language teachers, we have to consider a number of basic questions. How we answer these questions will influence both the content of our programs (what particular knowledge base informs our program) as well as the processes we employ (i.e. the activities and experiences we provide for teachers in the program). Some of these fundamental questions are:

- What is the pedagogical content of the program, i.e., what topics, theories, problems and issues will the program address?

- What theory or theories of teaching inform the program? For example, do we see teaching as a technology, a science, a craft, or an art?

- How are differences between novice teachers (those with little teaching experience) and expert teachers (those with a substantial experience of teaching) understood?

- How is the nature of teacher development viewed? How do we conceptualize the stages of development which teachers pass through as they move from being novices to becoming experts in teaching? In other words, what view of change underlies the program?

- What kinds of teacher education experiences best realize the view of teachers and of teaching, which underlies the program?

These questions can be answered in different ways, leading to very different kinds of emphases in teacher education programs. In the present paper I want to focus on how just two of these questions can be answered, and what the consequences are for teacher education practice. The questions I will focus on are:

- What theory of teaching underlies a teacher education program?

- What kinds of teacher education experiences best realize the view of teachers and of teaching, which underlies the program?

My plan is the following: First I will address the question concerning theories of teaching, and compare two different approaches to teaching - what I will call top-down versus bottom-up approaches. Then I will illustrate a bottom-up approach by discussing the notion of critically reflective teaching. I will go on to discuss activities which can be used to develop the capacities for critical reflection and critical inquiry.

Top-down Approaches to Teaching

I use this term to refer to theories of teaching which involve applying knowledge or theory to teaching: one starts with information or theory and then asks, how can this be applied to teaching? I will discuss two examples of this kind of top-down approach - one being applications of research to teaching, the other being the use of methods as a framework for teaching.

Theories of Teaching Based on Applications of Research

There is a long tradition in education of using learning theory as a basis for developing theories of teaching (Zahorik, 1986). These conceptions depend on principles developed from research on memory, transfer, motivation, and other factors believed to be important in learning. In general education, mastery learning and program learning are examples of scientifically based conceptions of teaching. In the field of second language instruction, audiolingualism, task-based language teaching, and learner training each represent applications of research in second language learning to the activity of language teaching.

Audiolingualism was derived from research on learning associated with behavioral psychology. Language learning was seen as a process of habit formation in which target language patterns were presented for memorization and learning through dialogs and drills. These were an application of principles revived from laboratory studies of animal learning, namely, rats.

Task-based language teaching is a more recent example of using learning research as a basis for teaching. Proponents of Task-based language teaching argue that second language acquisition research shows that successful language learning involves learners in negotiation of meaning. In the process of negotiating with a

speaker of the target language, the learner receives the kind of input needed to facilitate learning. Advocates of task-based language teaching propose that classroom tasks which involve negotiation of meaning should form the basis of the language teaching curriculum, and that tasks can be used to facilitate practice both of language forms and communicative functions (Prahbu, 1983).

The teaching referred to as learner training draws on research on the cognitive styles and learning strategies used by learners in carrying out different types of classroom tasks. Where audiolingualism and task-based teaching focus base their pedagogies on research-based understandings of the activity of teaching, this research focusses on learners and may involve observing them, asking them to introspect about their learning strategies, or probing their thinking and processes in other ways. The assumption is that once successful learning strategies are identified, these can be taught to other learners.

Each of these forms of teaching aims to put into practice findings and principles arrived at through research on learning, and makes the common assertion that teaching is, in effect, the mirror image of learning. A researcher and proponent of learner training, Willing [1981,1] makes the argument quite explicitly:

> Research shows that an effort to accommodate learning styles by choosing suitable teaching styles, methodologies and course organization can result in improved learner satisfaction and attainment.

Methods-based Approaches

Another top-down approach to teaching is to construct a theory of teaching through reason or rational thought. Systematic and principled thinking, rather than empirical investigation, is used to support these forms of classroom practice. Thus these conceptions of teaching tend not to draw support from classroom results which are empirically measured or compared, such as by showing pre- and post-test gains resulting from the use of a method. Instead they justify themselves through logical argumentation.

In second language instruction, we find examples of such theory-based conceptions in Communicative Language Teaching or the Silent Way, among others. Each of these forms of teaching is based on a set of carefully constructed assumptions which are logically extended from belief into classroom practice. Communicative Language Teaching, for example, arose as a reaction to grammar-based teaching realized in the teaching materials, syllabi, and methods prevalent in

the 1960s. The proponents of Communicative Language Teaching established it as a form of teaching through convincing critiques of the inadequacy of the linguistic and pedagogical theory underlying grammar-based teaching.

Often described as a 'principled approach', Communicative Language Teaching is an attempt to operationalize the theoretical concept of communicative competence and to apply it throughout second language instruction, from program to syllabus design, to teaching techniques.

The Silent Way, on the other hand, is derived not so much from advances in linguistic theory, like Communicative Language Teaching, but from a unique view of learning theory. Based on a theory of how learning takes place in adults, the classroom procedures in the Silent Way, which have become to many the hallmark of that form of teaching are reasoned from distinct principles.

Now why are these views of teaching seen as top-down, and so what? Both research-based and methods-based theories of teaching provide ready-made solutions, embedded in which are particular assumptions about the essential skills of teaching. Once the characteristics of learning are identified through research, teachers must aim to implement such principles in their own classes.

Methods-based conceptions require teachers first to understand the thinking which underlies the methodology and then to teach in such a way that the thinking is realized in classroom practice. With Communicative Language Teaching for example, lessons, syllabi, materials and teaching techniques are judged as more or less 'communicative'. Specifications of what constitutes 'communicative teaching' have been proposed, and teachers' performance can be assessed according to them. Likewise the view of teaching which forms the basis of the Silent Way can lead to prescriptions about what teachers should and should not do in the classroom.

Research-based and methods-based views of teaching reflect an essentially negative view of teachers - what I call the "teacher as idiot" philosophy. This implies that since the quality of teachers cannot be guaranteed, the contribution of the individual teacher should be minimized by designing teacher-proof methods. The hidden assumption is that teachers cannot be trusted to teach well. Left to their own devices, teachers will invariably make a mess of things. A method, however, because it imposes a uniform set of teaching roles, teaching styles, teaching strategies, and teaching techniques on the teacher, will not be affected by the variations that are found in individual teaching skill and teaching style in the real world.

The essential skills of teaching underlying these two approaches can be summarized in the following way:

Research based conceptions

- Understand the learning principles
- Develop tasks and activities based on the learning principles
- Monitor students' performance on tasks to see that desired performance on tasks is being achieved

Methods based conceptions

- Understand the theory and the principles
- Select syllabi, materials and tasks based on the theory/principles
- Monitor one's teaching to see that it conforms to the theory/principles

In applying such a paradigm to teacher education, the task is essentially one of training. Some of the techniques, used in training reflect a view of learning as "modeling": student teachers model the behaviours of master teachers or effective teachers or they model proven techniques of teaching. For example, micro-teaching offers trainers a chance to model new behaviours to teachers and then for teachers to practise and learn the new skills. Observation (either of teachers in the classroom or of model lessons on video) similarly allows student teachers to learn through modeling or imitation. Demonstration, simulation, and role play are also procedures that can be used to help teachers master new techniques, with the hope that they will later try them out in their own classrooms, incorporate them into their repertoire of teaching strategies and, hence, become better teachers.

Bottom-up Approaches to Teaching

Alternative approaches to conceptualizing the nature of teaching, and by implication, to the development of teacher education programs, start with internal rather than external views of teaching, and centre on the process of teaching itself. Bottom-up approaches use the teacher's actual teaching experiences as the basis for

constructing theories and for developing notions of effective teaching. And these theories are constructed by teachers themselves, rather than imposed on them by outsiders.

Bottom-up approaches start from the assumption that teachers, rather than methods, make a difference, that teachers are engaged in a complex process of planning, decision making, hypothesis testing, experimentation, and reflection, that these processes are often personal and situation-specific, and that they should form the focus of teacher education and teacher professional development (Richards, 1990). This approach involves teachers developing their own individual theories of teaching, exploring the nature of their own decision-making and classroom practices, and developing strategies for critical reflection and change. This is sometimes referred to as "teaching as improvisational performance", or an art-craft conception of teaching. Zahorick [1986,22] characterizes this conception in this way:

The essence of this view of good teaching is invention and personalization. A good teacher is a person who assesses the needs and posibilities of a situation and creates and uses practices that have promise for that situation.

Teachers are not encouraged to look for a general method of teaching or to master a prescribed set of teaching skills; rather they constantly try to discover things that work, discarding old practices and taking on board new ones through a process of decision-making, reflection, analysis and assessment.

The essential skills of teaching from this perspective are:

- Treat each teaching situation as unique
- Identify the particular characteristics of each situation
- Try out different teaching strategies to address those characteristics
- Reflect on and assess the efficacy of the strategies
- Develop an internally coherent, personal approach to the classroom

Implications for Teaching Education

One thing that contrasts bottom-up approaches to teacher education, from top-down, is a shift in emphasis from that of "training", to that of "education", or "development". Freeman (1992) argues that teacher education is essentially about teachers' conceptions of teaching, how they think about and carry out what they do in classrooms. Teacher education must examine how these conceptions are put together and how they can be influenced or developed.

There are a number of important implications of this point of view for how we approach the process of teacher education:

(i) Teachers are not viewed as entering the programme with deficiencies. Although there are obviously areas of content that teachers may not be familiar with and may wish to learn about, more emphasis is placed on what teachers know and do and on providing tools with which they can more fully explore their own beliefs, attitudes, and practices.

(ii) While teacher development acknowledges a theory of teaching as central to the process of planning and implementing a teacher education programme (Richards, 1987; Freeman, 1989), such a theoretical basis serves not as a source of doctrine which is used to shape and modify teachers, bringing them more closely to an ideal model, but serves as a starting point. Its role is to help teachers explore, define, and clarify their own classroom processes, and their individual theories of teaching and learning.

(iii) The programme does not start with the idea that teachers must change or discard current practices. As Freeman (1989:38) observes:

> "Change does not necessarily mean doing something differently; it can be an affirmation of current practice; the teacher is [perhaps] unaware of doing something that is effective."

The focus is, thus, more on expanding and deepening awareness.

(iv) The programme is discovery oriented and inquiry based. Instead of the programme being dependent upon external knowledge and expertise, external input serves as only one source of information. It is complemented by teacher input, and both interact to help teachers understand their own attitudes, values, knowledge base, and practices, and their influence on classroom life.

Reflection and inquiry are key components of this view of teacher development. The skill of self-inquiry and critical thinking is seen as central for continued professional growth, and is designed to help teachers move from a level where they may be guided largely by impulse, intuition, or routine, to a level where their actions are guided by reflection and critical thinking (Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985).

Let us now examine these notions of reflection and critical inquiry in more detail, and examine some examples of teacher development activities, which can be used to develop a critically reflective approach to teaching.

What is Reflection?

Reflection or "critical reflection", refers to an activity or process in which an experience is recalled, considered, and evaluated, usually in relation to a broader purpose. It is a response to past experience and involves conscious recall and examination of the experience as a basis for evaluation and decision-making and as a source for planning and action (Bartlett, 1990).

How Does Reflection Take Place?

Many different approaches can be employed if one wishes to become a critically reflective teacher, including observation of oneself and others, team teaching, and exploring one's view of teaching through writing. Central to any approach used however is a three part process which involves:

Stage 1 *The event itself*

The starting point is an actual teaching episode, such as a lesson or other instructional event. While the focus of critical reflection is usually the teacher's own teaching, self-reflection can also be stimulated by observation of another person's teaching.

Stage 2 *Recollection of the event*

The next stage in reflective examination of an experience is an account of what happened, without explanation or evaluation. Several different procedures are available during the recollection phase, including written descriptions of an event, a video or audio recording of an event, or the use of check lists or coding systems to capture details of the event.

Stage 3 *Review and response to the event*

Following a focus on objective description of the event, the participant returns to the event and reviews it. The event is now processed at a deeper level, and questions are asked about the experience.

Let us examine approaches to critical reflection which reflect these processes.

Recording Lessons

For many aspects of teaching, audio or video recording of lessons can also provide a basis for reflection. At its simplest, a tape recorder is located in a place where it can capture the exchanges which take place during a lesson. With a microphone placed on the teacher's table, much of the teacher's language can be recorded as well as the exchanges of many of the students in the class. Pak (1985) recommends recording for a one or two week period and then randomly selecting a cassette for closer analysis. This recording could be used as the basis for an initial assessment. Where video facilities are available in a school, the teacher can request to have a lesson recorded, or with access to video equipment, students themselves can be assigned this responsibility. A 30 minute recording usually provides more than sufficient data for analysis. The goal is to capture as much of the interaction of the class as possible, both teacher to class and student to student. Once the initial novelty wears off, both students and teacher accept the presence of the technician with the camera, and the class proceeds with minimum disruption.

Written Accounts of Experiences

Another useful way of engaging in the reflective process is through the use of written accounts of experiences. Personal accounts of experiences through writing are common in other disciplines (Powell 1985) and their potential is increasingly being recognized in teacher education. A number of different approaches can be used.

Self-Reports

Self-reporting involves completing an inventory or check list in which the teacher indicates which teaching practices were used within a lesson or within a specified time period and how often they were employed (Pak, 1985). The inventory may be completed individually or in group sessions. The accuracy of self reports is found to increase when teachers focus on the teaching of specific skills in a particular classroom context and when the self-report instrument is carefully constructed to reflect a wide range of potential teaching practices and behaviors (Richards, 1990).

Self-reporting allows teachers to make a regular assessment of what they are doing in the classroom. They can check to see to what extent their assumptions about their own teaching are reflected in their actual teaching practices. For example a teacher could use self-reporting to find out the kinds of teaching activities being regularly used, whether all of the program's goals are being addressed, the degree to which personal goals for a class are being met, and the kinds of activities which seem to work well or not to work well.

Autobiographies

Abbs (1974, cited in Powell 1985) discusses the use of autobiographies in teacher preparation. These consist of small groups of around 12 students who meet for an hour each week for at least 10 weeks. During this period of time each student works at creating a written account of his or her educational experience and the weekly meetings are used to enable each person to read a passage from his or her autobiography so that it can be supported, commented upon by peers and the teacher (43).

Powell (1985) describes the use of reaction-sheets - sheets student teachers complete after a learning activity has been completed - in which they are encouraged "to stand back from what they had been doing and think about what it meant for their own learning and what it entailed for their work as teachers of others" (p. 46). I have used a similar technique in working with student teachers in a practicum. Students work in pairs with a co-operating teacher and take turns teaching. One serves as observer while the other teaches, and completes a reaction sheet during the lesson. The student who teaches also completes his or her own reaction sheet after the lesson. Then the two compare their reactions to the lesson.

Journal Writing

A procedure which is becoming more widely acknowledged as a valuable tool for developing critical reflection is the journal or diary. While procedures for diary keeping vary, the participant usually keeps a regular account of learning or teaching experiences, recording reflections on what he or she did as well as straightforward descriptions of events, which may be used as a basis for later reflection. The diary serves as a means for interaction between the writer, the facilitator, and sometimes other participants.

Here are some examples made by a student teacher from China, who was completing a practicum with the author. Near the beginning of her practice teaching experience she writes of one lesson in a conversation course:

> I like my pacing generally today, but I found that I did not give the students enough time to practise on one task before going on to another. I was also too nervous to function well. I made more grammatical mistakes than I should have. The students were very helpful and cooperative. Today's taks were a little too easy for most of the students. I should have prepared something more challenging.

A week later she writes:

> Today I found myself using a lot of teaching strategies that I used to use in China. I tended to explain too much, tended to make the class teacher-centered. Next time I teach, I will pay special attention to this. I must try to remember that these students come to class to practise speaking English - not to listen to me.

She soon begins to note an improvement in her performance, and at the same time records points for future action:

> I felt much more confident today. The way I presented the lesson was much more challenging for the students than last time. The pacing was better too. I felt that the students were all involved in the lesson. However I did not handle the group-work exercise well. My directions were not clear and some of the students did not understand the exercise. I didn't give them enough time to work on it either.

After a particularly frustrating lesson she writes:

> Sometimes I ask myself "Can anyone be a teacher?" "Does anyone know how to teach?" My answer is Yes and No. Sometimes I feel that teaching is the hardest job in the world. Many jobs require only your hands and brain, but teaching requires much more. Hands, brain, eyes and mouth. A good teacher is someone who knows how to handle these parts beautifully at the same time. Sometimes I think I am not cut out to be a teacher, because I do not possess what a good teacher has: logical thinking, well-organized talking, spontaneous response. Sometimes I decide that I will become a good teacher if I know how to learn, to observe, to practise. "Where there is a will, there is a way."

But a week later she observes:

> I felt so good about my teaching today. Everything went well. I could tell the students were on task. I found that my ability to give clear explanations has improved a lot. In today's class I did not find any cases where students could not understand my instructions as in my earlier classes.

And later she revises an earlier impression of her teaching:

> I used to think I was not cut out to be a teacher, because I don't possess some of the important characteristics that a good teacher should have ... However, after today's teaching, I began to think my earlier conclusion about my teaching was a little unfair. I didn't expect that today's lesson would turn out to be so successful. Both my students and I functioned very well.

For student teachers as well as experienced teachers, a diary account can hence serve as one source of information on what happens in the classroom and can assist in the interpretation of classroom events.

Collaborative Diary Keeping

A group of teachers may also collaborate in journal writing. A group of my colleagues recently explored the value of collaborative diary-keeping as a way of developing a critically reflective view of their teaching (Brock, Yu and Wong, 1992). Throughout a 10-week teaching term they kept diaries on their teaching, read each other's diaries, and discussed their teaching and diary keeping experiences on a weekly basis. They also recorded and later transcribed their group discussions and subsequently analyzed their diary entries, their written responses to each other's entries, and the transcripts of their discussions, in order to determine how these three interacted and what issues occurred most frequently. They reported that:

> "Collaborative diary-keeping brought several benefits to our development as second language teachers. It raised our awareness of classroom processes and prompted us to consider those processes more deeply than we may otherwise have. Collaborative diary-keeping also provided encouragement and support; it served as a source of teaching ideas and suggestions; and in some sense it gave us a way to observe one another's teaching from a "safe distance" ...
>
> By reading one another's diary entries, we were able to share our teaching experiences, and we often felt that we were learning as much from one another's entries as we were from our own. Reading and responding to the entries led us back to our own teaching to consider how and why we taught as we did."
>
> (Brock, Yu, and Wong, 1992 300)

These teachers observed however that

1 collaborative diary-keeping is more effective if the scope of issues considered is focussed more narrowly,

2 a large block of time is needed,

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

3 participants must be comfortable in sharing both pleasant and unpleasant experiences and be committed to gaining a clearer picture of their teaching and their classrooms.

Peer Observation

Peer observation can provide opportunities for teachers to view each others teaching in order to expose them to different teaching styles and to provide opportunities for critical reflection on their own teaching. In a peer observation project initiated in our own department, the following guidelines were developed (Richards and Lockhart, 1991).

1 Each participant would both observe and be observed

Teachers would work in pairs and take turns observing each others' classes.

2 Pre-observation orientation session

Prior to each observation, the two teachers would meet to discuss the nature of the class to be observed, the kind of material being taught, the teacher's approach to teaching, the kinds of students in the class, typical patterns of interaction and class participation, and any problems that might be expected. The teacher being observed would also assign the observer a goal for the observation and a task to accomplish. The task would involve collecting information about some aspect of the lesson, but would not include any evaluation of the lesson. Observation procedures or instruments to be used would be agreed upon during this session and a schedule for the observations arranged.

3 The observation

The observer would then visit his or her partner's class and complete the observation using the procedures that both partners had agreed on.

4 Post-observation

The two teachers would meet as soon as possible after the lesson. The observer would report on the information that had been collected and discuss it with the teacher.

The teachers identified a variety of different aspects of their lessons for their partners to observe and collect information on. These included organization of the lesson, teacher's time management, students' performance on tasks, time-on-task, teacher questions and student responses, student performance during pairwork, classroom interaction, class performance during a new teaching activity, and students' use of the first language or English during group work.

The teachers who participated in the project reported that they gained a number of insights about their own teaching from their colleague's observations and that they would like to use peer observation on a regular basis. They obtained new insights into aspects of their teaching. For example:

> "It provided more detailed information on student performance during specific aspects of the lesson than I could have gathered on my own."
>
> "It revealed unexpected information about interaction between students during a lesson."
>
> "I was able to get useful information on the group dynamics that occur during group work."

Some teachers identified aspects of their teaching that they would like to change as a result of the information their partner collected. For example:

> "It made me more aware of the limited range of teaching strategies that I have been using."
>
> "I need to give students more time to complete some of the activities I use."
>
> "I realized that I need to develop better time management strategies."

Longer term benefits to the department were also sighted:

> "It helped me develop a better working relationship with a colleague."
>
> "Some useful broader issues about teaching and the programme came up during the post-observation discussions."

What Happens When Teachers Engage in Activities Involving Critical Reflection and Inquiry?

If we believe critical reflection and inquiry is worth incorporating into teacher education programs, then we need to be able to say why it is good, and also develop a research agenda to validate our assumptions. The claims underlying many approaches to reflective teaching are that teachers working in this way are involved in articulating their own theories of language pedagogy, and that this can lead to more complex characteristics of their own teaching.

Others have suggested that it helps develop teachers with the following kinds of skills:

- They have better developed schemata about teaching, i.e. the abstract knowledge structure that summarizes information about many particular cases and the relationships between them.

- These schemata are more elaborate, more complex, more interconnected and more easily accessible than those used by teachers who do not engage in critical reflection.

- Their pedagogical reasoning skills are qualitatively different (the skills with which teachers can transform and utilize theoretical and content knowledge and organise and adapt it to learners' interests and abilities in teaching)

- Their improvizational performances in teaching are different.

- Their decision-making reflects a richer awareness of the variables within their own classroom, which can affect learning outcomes.

But how would one gather evidence to support these kinds of claims? Research on teaching within a technical/rational paradigm is deeply rooted in a process-product view of teaching and classrooms and looks for cause-effect relationships in teaching (Chaudron, 1988). Research on teaching from a bottom-up approach, however, focusses on the role of reflective inquiry in teachers' thinking and classroom practices and requires a very different research stance. Approaches of this kind typically involve observing teachers as they teach, and exploring with them by examining videos of their lessons, how instructional events evolved and why, and what influenced the decisions they made before, during or after teaching.

This approach was used in a study by Westerman (1991). She examined one dimension of teaching in detail - teacher decision making, and sought to clarify differences in the kind of decision-making employed by experts and novices. She found differences in the levels of reflection which expert and novice teachers engaged in during the three stages of decision-making - preactive, interactive, and post-active.

Although this study does not illustrate what happens to teachers before and after they have engaged in activities which involve critical reflection and inquiry, it does support some of the informal observations noted earlier with respect to what teachers felt they gained from activities such as videotaping lessons and peer observation. We could say that the nature of the teachers' improvisional performance has changed as a result of the greater awareness they have achieved of their own beliefs and practices. Their grasp of pedagogic reasoning skills has deepened. They are able to use their own experiences in the classroom as a basis for learning.

Freeman (1992) describes a study which was a longitudinal, qualitative examination of four teachers' conceptions of practice as they took part in a teacher education program. He used interviews, observations, and the teachers' written accounts of their experiences, as a source of data. He described the central role of critical reflection in the process by which these teachers constructed a conceptualization of their practice.

Conclusions

I would like to conclude by reiterating some observations that David Nunan and I made in the book we edited on second language teacher education (Richards and Nunan 1990), in which we identified a number of recurring themes in current work in SLTE:

- a movement away from a "training" perspective to an "education" perspective and recognition that effective teaching involves higher level cognitive processes, which cannot be taught directly

- the need for teachers and student teachers to adopt a research orientation to their own classrooms and their own teaching

- less emphasis on an inquiry-based and discovery-oriented approach to learning (bottom-up)

- a focus on devising experiences that require the student teacher to generate theories and hypotheses and to reflect critically on teaching

- less dependence on linguistics and language theory as a source discipline for second language teacher education, and more of an attempt to integrate sound, educationally based approaches

- use of procedures that involve teachers in gathering and analyzing data about teaching

Reflective teaching is one approach in teacher education which links experience and reflection providing an impetus for the growth of understanding and awareness, the keys to a teacher's ongoing professional development.

REFERENCES

BARTLETT, L. (1990). Teacher Development through Reflective Teaching. In J.C. Richards and D. Nunan (Eds.), Second Language Teacher Education (pp. 202-214). New York: Cambridge University Press.

BOUD, D., Keogh, R., & Walker, D. (Eds.) (1985). Reflection: Turning Experience into Learning. London: Kogan Page.

BROCK, M., B. Yu, & M. Wong. (1992). Journaling Together: Collaborative Diary-keeping and Teacher Development. In J. Flowerdew, M. Brock, and S. Hsia (eds). Perspectives on Second Language Teacher Education. Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong. 295-307.

CHAUDRON, C. (1988). Second Language Classrooms. New York: Cambridge University Press.

FREEMAN, Donald. (1989). Teacher Training Development, and Decision-making. TESOL Quarterly, 23 (1), 27-47.

FREEMAN, Donald. (1992). Language Teacher Education Emerging Discourse, and Change in Classroom Practice. In J. Flowerdew, M. Brock, and S Hsia (eds.). Perspectives on Second Language Teacher Education. Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong. 1-21.

PAK, J. (1985). Find Out How You Teach. Adelaide, Australia: National Curriculum Resource Center.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

POWELL, J.P. (1985). Autobiographical Learning. In D. Boud, R. Keogh, & D. Walker (Eds.), Reflection: Turning Experience into Learning. (pp. 41-51). London: Kogan Page.

RICHARDS, Jack C. (1987). The Dilemma of Teacher Education in TESOL. TESOL Quarterly. 21, (2), 209-226.

RICHARDS, Jack C., & David Nunan (Eds.) (1990). Second Language Teacher Education. New York: Cambridge University Press.

RICHARDS, Jack C. (1990). The Teacher as Self-observer. In J.C. Richards (Ed.), The Language Teaching Matrix. (pp. 118-143). New York: Cambridge University Press.

RICHARDS, Jack C., & Charles Lockhart. (1991). Teacher Development through Peer Observation. TESOL Journal. 1, (2) 1991-1992. 7-10.

WESTERMAN, D. (1991). Expert and Novice Teacher Decision Making. Journal of Teacher Education. 42(4), 292-305.

WILLING, Ken. (1981). Learning Styles in Adult Migrant Education. Adelaide, Australia: National Curriculum Resource Centre.

ZAHORIC, John A. (1986). Acquiring Teaching Skills. Journal of Teacher Education, March - April 1986, 21-25.